

Wearing Pride on Their Sleeve: An Examination of the Relationship between Team and
University Identity and Brand Equity

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Abstract

The current study seeks to examine the ever-increasing relationship between sportswear companies and university intercollegiate athletic departments, and the subsequent effect on the students of the university. Beginning in the late 1990's the process of university athletic departments engaging in agreements with sportswear companies (ie. Nike, Adidas, Under Armour, etc.) has become an ever pertinent component to the landscape of college athletics. The dollar value of these contracts has grown exponentially, and has become a point of pride and recognition for universities and their athletic departments.

However, very little research has been made to examine the impact of the unique relationship between sportswear brands and university students who are not athletes at their institution. Social Identity Theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986) posits that every individual seeks to establish identities that define themselves as they exist in society. Some of the identities are fairly straight forward (ie. gender, age, race), others however, are less so. Of these, becoming a fan of a given sports team and developing a team identity or becoming increasingly identified with one's college or university and developing a university identity. The importance of an individual's attachment to *their team* has positive implications for the athletic department and university's potential revenue opportunities through ticket sales, merchandising agreements, and sponsorships, but this attachment can be equally advantageous for the sportswear companies. This is posited through the potential development of a stronger belief of brand equity of the brand that is worn by an individual's team and university that could lead to greater likelihood of repeat purchases and brand loyalty.

To investigate this connection, university students were surveyed using instruments of team identity (Heere & James, 2007), university identity (Mael & Ashforth, 1992), and brand equity (Yoo & Donthu, 2001). The results demonstrated that both university identity and team identity were not statistically significant predictors of perceived brand equity. The implications of these findings have a very pertinent impact on the way in which sportswear brands focus their business decisions in engaging in licensing and sponsorship agreements with intercollegiate athletic departments.

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Introduction

The world of college athletics has boomed into big business, and many entities are taking notice. In particular, sportswear companies have realized that college athletics are a powerful vessel for brand exposure to a consumer base that may not have been engendered without the sportswear company's presence. The ability to leverage an individual's fandom towards their perception of sportswear brand could have long lasting profit implications for companies that compete in a competitive industry. This research aims to examine the relationship between the concepts of team identity and university identity of students at the University of Kansas, and whether those identities lead to increased brand equity towards the official outfitter of University of Kansas Athletics, adidas. While much research has examined the role of college sports to create social capital and help to create and strengthen communities on campus, very little has been made combining the concept of sports marketing and consumer behavior (brand equity and brand loyalty) and Social Identity Theory (team identity, university identity, organizational identity).

When the first intercollegiate sporting contest occurred in 1852 between the rowing clubs of Harvard University and Yale University the landscape of college athletics was very different than the colossus that exists today. The creation of the first governing body in collegiate athletics came in 1906 as the Intercollegiate Athletic Association of the United States (IAAUS) first convened as a result of building pressure from the increasing mortal danger of college football. Four years later the organization became the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA), and has existed as the primary organization for all colleges and universities hoping to engage in intercollegiate athletics since its inception (Smith, 1988). While much has remained

constant in its existence, the NCAA has grown and fluctuated with the current trends in American society. Student-athletes have been behaving less like *students* and more like *athletes*, with graduation rates dropping and academic major clustering occurring with greater likelihood (Schneider, Ross, & Fisher, 2010; Yost, 2010). Large powerful athletic conferences have developed across the country, with member institutions that field ultra-competitive teams, no matter the sport or the cost. Today, college football alone generates \$5 billion in revenue, and in 2003 40.6 million fans attend college football games and events (Katz, 2005). Media coverage of college sports has exploded in a way that few could have predicted with major media corporations willing to pay billions for the exclusive rights to games and tournaments. College athletics has become ‘big business’ and many individuals and corporations are anxious to do whatever they can to cash in on the potential revenues generated. However, this is not entirely at the fault of the NCAA or its student-athletes as professional sports have transformed to become a billion dollar industry, with millionaire athletes. The increasingly fast-paced American lifestyle has allowed sports to become an ‘escape’ from everyday life, and major American sports institutions have developed from the increased interest. The impact this has had on college athletes has been well documented as the role of college athletics has shifted largely over the last 20 years.

In the course of American history the ‘American University’ has often been revered with quintessential illustrious status and ideals; and in the beginning often only pandered to those who were wealthy enough to have the opportunity to set foot within its walls (Archibald, 2002). With the rise of public state institutions the exquisite economic status of attending college was lessened, but the power of an education still remained. However, with the recent rise in college tuition, many are beginning to see the ability of attending college disappear, or are preparing to

take on the monstrous debt that now comes with pursuing a post-secondary education. However, it is hard to put a dollar-value on the *college experience*, and while many attend college for the education, it can be said that the experiences individuals garner while in college are of equal importance (Lottes & Kuriloff, 1994). Of these experiences is the ability to forge a new identity with your university's athletic teams, and showcase your pride in that identity by supporting your fellow students' triumphs on the playing field (or court). Universities have begun to notice the power that athletics have on current and potential students, and have begun to use their athletic teams to help market their institution. When a university's football team has a successful season, its applications for the following incoming freshman class increases in number, and subsequently in quality (Toma & Cross, 1998); the same can be said for other high profile sports such as baseball and men's and women's basketball. The reason for this is inherent in the nature of the construct and relationship of sports and the media as discussed previously. With a hungry consumer base for sports-based media, whether it be professional or collegiate, college sports have found a way in to living rooms across America, and with that so have the respective universities and colleges that field the teams that play in those contests. While an argument for the merit of the high valuation of college athletics can be made (we do not read stories or see highlights of the work of undergraduates who complete research in biology, or those that compete in debate, or perform in theatre groups), its presence as a major player in an individual's *college experience* remains paramount and cannot be devalued. Athletic events on university campuses give opportunities for the student base to interact with one another in a forum that cannot be found in a lecture hall or research lab (Clopton, 2008; Toma, 2003). Being a fan of your university's athletic teams bridges gaps across gender, race, and religion, and instead

creates a unified mass bound together under the newfound identity of student of this university and fan of this university's teams (Clopton, 2008; Clopton & Finch, 2010).

This process is showcased in Social Identity Theory (SIT), which states that individuals tend to classify themselves and others in to various social categories such as religious affiliation, gender, age, and in this case organizational affiliation (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Social Identity Theory is a broad-based concept that has been used in various disciplines in an effort to describe and explain the components individuals associate themselves with, and how these define the ways in which they interact with the world.

From these examples it can be inferred that individuals can be classified in to various or multiple categories, and that the way in which this categorization takes place will vary across individuals (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). The foundation of Social Identity Theory is that it is the individual whom self-classifies themselves in to their distinguishable identities; it focuses on “the group in the individual” and assumes that part of the self-concept is defined by our belonging to social groups (Hogg & Abrams, 1988). Identification is comprised of two components. The first, is the concept that individuals possess a singular personal identity and this identity becomes stronger when individuals are able to compare and contrast themselves from others (Goldberg, 1992). The second, centers on the individual possessing a social identity stemming from their association with similar groups (Ashmore, Deaux, McLaughlin-Volpe, 2004). Membership and identification with these groups allows individuals to assimilate with “like” individuals and differentiate themselves from those not sharing similar characteristics (Heere, Walker, Gibson, Thapa, Geldenhuys & Coetzee, 2013). The concept of social identity has become increasingly prevalent in the realm of sports because of its association with academic achievement (Deaux, Bikman, Gilkes, Ventuneac, Joseph, Payne, & Steele, 2007), interpersonal

relationships (Ashmore et al., 2004), civic engagement (Ashmore et al., 2004), organizational commitment (Hogg & Terry, 2001), and physical and psychological well-being (Sellers, Caldwell, Schmeelk-Cone & Zimmerman, 2003).

Stemming from similar theories and processes is the construct of Team Identity. Through social identity, it can be seen that sports team serve as important targets of identification (Heere & James, 2007). Heere & James further stated that “fans identify with a team because doing so provides them with a sense of belonging, often has a positive effect on self esteem and mood, and influences the perceptions fans have of their own behaviors (Dimmock, Grove, & Eklund, 2005 ; Hirt, Zillmann, Erickson, & Kennedy, 1992; Wann & Branscombe, 1993).” (p. 320). The positive feelings and attachment generated from identifying as a fan of a team allow the individual to make sense of their place in the societal fabric, and have demonstrated positive psychological benefits for the individual (Clopton, 2008; Wann & Branscombe, 1993).

Much like the changing and growth of the sports industry, the sportswear and footwear industry too has seen changes. When sportswear mainstays Nike and adidas began, they were created to serve only highly competitive athletes, and only made products that were used by those individuals. However, as Americans and the rest of the world began to develop a greater conscience and desire to engage in physical activity for pleasure rather than purpose, sportswear companies took notice and began to position new products in the marketplace for their new desiring consumer base. Soon those companies began to provide the uniforms for the athletes and the fans, the professionals and the weekend warriors (Wu & Chalip, 2013). As important as the facilities and coaches, uniforms and footwear play an integral role in the athletic success of sports teams. Formerly, collegiate athletic departments would purchase uniforms and footwear from vendors that sell products by adidas, Nike or Reebok. Often times this would result in

different teams in the same athletic department wearing different brands, or in some cases teams wearing two different brands at the same time.

With the meteoric rise of college athletics, sportswear and footwear brands jumped on board because they realized the potential for greater exposure. Large Division I athletic departments no longer pay for their uniforms, apparel and footwear; the Nikes, adidas and Under Armour are now fighting tooth and nail to enter into long term contracts with big time college athletic programs (Sanburn, 2013). In fact, adidas, Nike, and Under Armour provided their contracted universities with over \$250 million worth of cash and equipment in the year 2013 alone (Kish, 2013). This begs the question as to why companies are now paying those athletic departments that used to pay them: Why has the consumer/vendor relationship been flipped on its head? As discussed previously college sports are big business, and are currently experiencing an insatiable growth in television viewership (Sanburn, 2013). This has created unparalleled opportunity for sportswear and footwear brands to outfit recognizable athletes in their products and promote them on the biggest media stages in the country. The goal for each brand is to “own the campus” (Kish, 2013) through contracts with the university’s athletic department. By becoming an athletic department’s official provider, sportswear companies reap the benefits of unparalleled access to facilities, athletes, and personnel, thousands of tickets to events, and the opportunity to place their logo on a multitude of different venues and pieces of equipment the athletic department uses. The “official outfitter” status gives sportswear companies “the kind of ubiquitous exposure that drives an astounding level of consumer spending and loyalty.” (Kish, 2013).

The first week of the 2013 NCAA Men’s Basketball tournament garnered the event’s highest television ratings in 15 years, and all 68 teams were outfitted in adidas, Nike or Under

Armour. In fact, for the 2013 NCAA Men's Basketball Tournament, adidas clothed its six most recognizable basketball programs (the University of Cincinnati, the University of Kansas, UCLA, the University of Louisville, Baylor University and the University of Notre Dame) in flashy uniforms that were not well received by the media, but nonetheless discussed throughout the buildup to the tournament and the following three weeks of the event (Chase, 2013; Lombardo & Smith, 2013). And while analysts on ESPN, Fox Sports and CBS commented on the audacious style of the uniforms; the joke was clearly on them as the flashy adidas-clad Louisville Cardinals hoisted the championship trophy, and adidas basked in the proverbial basketball limelight.

The relationship in this case goes both ways, while adidas received lucrative marketing opportunities with the 'Louisvilles' wearing their uniforms, the universities, athletic departments, and even individual teams are well taken care of by adidas. The tradition laden University of Kansas, one of the flashy adidas-clad teams in last year's tournament, reportedly received no monetary compensation for wearing the new uniforms, but according to Kansas coach Bill Self this was a non-issue, "Sometimes you've got to be a team player, and adidas has certainly been good to us, there's no question. And this is something that was important to them, that they are able to market it with some other schools that they feel that can help them in this area. Certainly, we're going to do that to try to help them" (Sanburn, 2013). This reinforces the relationship and the role that these sportswear brands play in college athletics. While adidas is benefitting from the increased exposure of its brand because it is being worn by a very well-known and historic college basketball program, Kansas basketball is receiving numerous benefits in the form of apparel, footwear, equipment, and even monetary benefits. Often, the tangible benefits seem more straightforward, however adidas also let everyone who pays attention to college basketball

know that the University of Kansas is one of its premier relationships both on and off the court.

However, very little research and inquiry has been made to examine the role that these sportswear brands, and their connection to university athletic departments have on potential and current students that are not, and will not be members of Division I athletic teams. The value of media exposure, and particularly television exposure of a university's intercollegiate athletics teams has in recruiting future students and promoting applications to the school has been discussed in dearth. With constant exposure to these athletic teams, university students build, strengthen, and deepen their attachment to these teams and begin to form the aforementioned concepts of organizational identity, team identity, and university identity that are grounded in Social Identity Theory. The caveat then becomes that through this identification, students are also becoming consciously, or unconsciously bonded to the brand that supports, clothes, and spurs the achievement of their favorite teams. This bonding or favoring of a brand is known as Brand Equity, and has been intimately described as being "defined in terms of the marketing effects uniquely attributable to the brand – for example, when certain outcomes result from the marketing of a product or service because of its brand name that would not occur if the same product or service did not have that name," (Keller, 1993, pg. 2). Brand equity is the brand's strength amongst its competitors in the marketplace, not in terms of measured quality or benefits, but *perceived* quality, benefits, and effectiveness in the eyes of the consumer. The value of possessing strong brand equity has very tangible benefits to a company's sales and profitability; companies with strong brand equity are more likely to engender and retain customers than those without strong brand equity. This concept is critical in a unilateral industry such as the athletic sportswear and footwear industry. In the industry companies such as Nike, adidas, Under Armour, and Puma all make incredibly comparable products, and none of which are grossly

better than their competitors. The industry also possesses very brand affluent and brand loyal consumers, that once loyal to a particular company or product, will continue to make repeat purchases for a considerable portion of their lifetime (Tong & Hawley, 2009). With this understanding the importance of developing strong brand equity in the sportswear industry is very apparent, and can be understood as the reason that sportswear companies fight for the merchandising and outfitting rights of big name college and university athletic departments. When adidas, Nike, and Under Armour fight for these contracts, they are not fighting for the right to provide a fantastic product to these institutions. However, they are fighting for a chance to display their products to millions of potential fans that now see their favorite team dressed in 'three stripes' or a 'swoosh.' The thought processes of these brands is that when people see a team to which they have some familiarity, and then simultaneously see that team outfitted in a given brand's sportswear they may develop feelings about the brand (brand equity). What makes this relationship pertinent lies in the structure of sportswear brands and their contracts with sports leagues in the United States. Major League Baseball, the National Basketball Association, the National Football League, the National Hockey League, and Major League Soccer all have singular apparel and uniform contracts with one sportswear company (MLB is Majestic, NBA is adidas, NFL is Nike, NHL is Reebok, and MLS is adidas). College athletics and the NCAA have no such singular relationship with a sportswear company. Every university athletic department is free to negotiate contracts with whatever sportswear company they choose, and some even negotiate contracts with multiple companies (ie. Baylor University Football, Track and Field, Women's Basketball, and Volleyball are contracted by Nike; Men's Basketball is contracted by adidas; Baseball, Softball, and Women's Soccer are contracted by Under Armour). This unique situation creates the aforementioned opportunity for sportswear companies to promote their

products amongst the college sports scene, an institution that by its nature promotes a high level of devotion to team and university (Clopton, 2008). However, very little research has been made delving in to a sportswear company's ability to leverage this opportunity, based upon college sport fandom, to create a strong brand equity that could lead to higher levels of consumer growth and retention in an otherwise ultracompetitive industry.

This research aims to examine the relationship between the concepts of team identity and university identity of students at the University of Kansas, and whether those identities lead to increased brand equity towards the official outfitter of University of Kansas Athletics, adidas. Research has examined the role of college sports to create social capital and help to create and strengthen communities on campus, however very little has been made combining the concept of sports marketing and consumer behavior and Social Identity. Should a relationship exists, its understanding holds great importance in the way both athletic departments and sportswear companies interact in the future.

Literature Review

Imperative to the value and understanding of the current research is a thorough review of extant literature that has introduced and furthered the discussion and understanding of the relative concepts and theories that this study uses. Of those concepts and theories those most central to the current study are Social Identity Theory, which is the anchor for the theories of Organizational Identity and Attachment, Team Identity and University Identity. The study of Consumer Behavior and Brand Equity provide a framework for the understanding of the way in which consumer interact with goods and products in the marketplace. Each concept will be explored multi-dimensionally with relevant literature and research helping to form a thorough background and approach for the applicability of the current study. While a myriad of research has examined each concept this review will focus on those works most pertinent to the current study and its investigation of intercollegiate athletics, university students, the sportswear industry.

Social Identity Theory

Social identity theory is a broad-based concept that is used in various disciplines in an effort to describe and explain the components individuals associate themselves with, and how these define the ways in which they interact with the world; it focuses on “the group in the individual” and assumes that part of the self-concept is defined by our belonging to social groups (Hogg & Abrams, 1988). Ashforth & Mael (1989) described social identification as “a perception of oneness with a group of persons...(and) stems from the categorization of individuals, the distinctiveness and prestige of the group, the salience of outgroups, and the factors that traditionally are associated with group formation” (p.20). Tajfel (1978) offered the frequently used definition of social identity as “that part of an individual's self-concept which

derives from his knowledge of his membership of a social group together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership” (p. 63).

The identification these definitions discuss is said to be comprised of two components (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Goldberg, 1992). First, Goldberg (1992) states the first component, is the concept that individuals possess a singular personal identity and this identity becomes stronger when individuals are able to compare and contrast themselves from others. The second component centers on the individual possessing a social identity stemming from their association with similar groups. These components have also been described as cognitively segmenting and ordering the social environment, to provide the individual with a systematic means of defining others as the first, while this classification allows the individual to locate his or herself amongst the social environment (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Ashforth & Mael (1989) described social identification as “a perception of oneness with a group of persons...(and) stems from the categorization of individuals, the distinctiveness and prestige of the group, the salience of outgroups, and the factors that traditionally are associated with group formation” (p.20). Membership and identification with these groups allows individuals to assimilate with “like” individuals and differentiate themselves from those not sharing similar characteristics (Heere, Walker, Gibson, Thapa, Geldenhuys and Coetzee, 2013). Important to the concept and understanding of Social Identity Theory, is that the process of identification with a group is done by the individual themselves (Tajfel & Turner, 1982). That is to say that these individuals are not forcibly put into various groups, and thus because they are able to select their own true identity they are able to come to and develop a stronger sense of belonging and assimilation based upon what their expectations and understanding of the group they considered themselves aligned to.

The basis of an individual's collective identification to a group has been discussed previously. Specifically, Ashmore et al. (2004), formed a framework that conceptualizes an individual's collective identity, and what elements vary and strengthen the respective identity. By understanding the different elements involved in an individual's collective identification process outcomes of identification can be better understood and predicted. These elements include self-categorization, evaluation, importance, attachment and sense of interdependence, social embeddedness, behavioral involvement, and content and meaning (Ashmore et al., 2004). These concepts are of importance in an individual's identification process with teams, organizations, universities, and brands. With this basis many researchers are able to make educated decisions and predictions as to how, why, and when an individual will identify with a particular group. The benefits of social and collective identification are numerous, and have been found to have positive impacts on social capital generation (Clopton & Finch, 2010) and generate psychic income (Clopton & Finch, 2010; Crompton, 2004).

Inherent in the concept of social identity is the range of identities an individual in society can have across their lifetime. These identities can range from demographic groupings, such as gender, race, age, income, etc. or they can be focused on different membership organizations, such as political affiliation, religion, unions, universities, sports teams, region, etc. (Heere et al., 2013). Identity groups can become even more focused and specific in their social roles assumed within these settings, such as sibling, employee, student, parent, friend, etc. (Deaux, Reid, Mizrahi, & Ethier, 1995). Of these group identities some are direct and central to the individual's everyday life (gender, parent, etc.), while others are more abstract and symbolic (sports teams, nation, religion, etc.). Because these groups are so abstract, they need constant reinforcement in order to remind an individual that they are part of their everyday identity

(Billig, 1995). In the scope of sporting events and regional identity, these abstract identities are furthered instilled when there are constant reference actions made (Heere et al., 2013). This could come from team billboards displayed in public locations, state flags flown at stadiums, or individuals attempting to “wear what the pros wear” in an effort to feel closer to their team.

The concept of social identity has become increasingly prevalent in the realm of sports because of its association with academic achievement (Deaux et al., 2007), interpersonal relationships (Ashmore et al., 2004), civic engagement (Ashmore et al., 2004), organizational commitment (Hogg & Terry, 2001), and physical and psychological well-being (Sellers et al., 2003).

Anderson and Stone (1981) were among the first to acknowledge the power of sport as an instrument for individuals to identify with other members of a community. With the increased urbanization in the 20th century relationships became less intimate, and individuals began to experience their community through friends and informal events, such as supporting a sports team, instead of through formal organizations such as church or voluntary organizations (Putnam, 2000). Those individuals that establish strong group identities among their organizations engender greater opportunities to enter in to network exchanges that are steeped in trust. These safe and non-threatening exchanges form opportunities for the creation of social capital and the potential for the subsequent generation of psychic income.

Social Identity Theory will continue to have a longstanding presence in the realm of society, and particularly sports and other large organizations.

Organizational Identity

Stemming from the framework of Social Identity Theory, are the more specific theoretical dimensions of Organizational Identity (OID). Organizational Identity has been referred to as

“that which is most central, enduring, and distinctive about an organization’s character.” (Gioia, Schultz, & Corely, 2000, p. 63). Individuals then are able to distinguish the character of their organization and assign a relevant self-value to the entity that helps to create a form of identification. The value of an individual’s organization to their reflective social identification is paramount, and can help provide an answer to the individual’s question of, “who am I?” Because of this Organizational Identity has the ability to explain the perceived roles and associations of individuals in the organizations of which they are a part. With these established roles individuals often perceive their fate to be tied together with the fate of the organization (Stryker & Serpe, 1982; Turner, 1982).

Ashforth & Mael (1989) establish four principles of group identification that are central to the discussion on the theory. First, they state that identification “is viewed as a perceptual cognitive construct that is not necessarily associated with any specific behaviors or affective states (p.21). Inherently this means that an individual does not have to actively be involved with the accomplishment of the group’s goals, but rather must feel that their fate is intertwined with his or her own. This has immediate implications on the role of sports teams and their fans. Fans of sports teams are not actively working towards the goals of the team to win games, practice and train, yet fans feels as if their destiny and fate are wrapped up in the results of *their* team’s victories or defeats, successes and triumphs. The second principle furthers the understanding of the first, in stating that an individual suffers both the tragedies and triumphs of the group they identify. An individual’s group identification is in fact strengthened when their groups endure periods of success or failure (Tajfel, 1982; Turner 1981). The third principle explains that an individual’s identification with an organization is based upon their feelings of oneness with that organization. However, that does not mean that an individual must agree with every set of

principles, guidelines and values that an organization espouses (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Simply stated, an individual's identification with a group does not mean they must forget their own values and beliefs in favor of those of the organization. The final principle explains that the processes of an individual's identification with a group are the same or complimentary to those processes made with the identification to an individual such as, father, daughter, or doctor/patient (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). The perceived distinctiveness of the organization's values and practices relative to those of comparable groups has been hypothesized to relate to an individual's identification with that organization (Oakes & Turner, 1986). Distinctiveness differentiates the organization from other organizations and provides a sharper and more salient definition for organizational members (Mael & Ashforth, 1992). In this case distinctiveness represents an *antecedent* of the organization that allows individuals to establish a clearer self identification. Other organizational antecedents often discussed in literature are that of prestige of the organization (Mael & Ashforth, 1992; March & Simon, 1958) and competition between the focal institution and its equals (Brown & Ross, 1982; Friedkin & Simpson, 1985; Mael & Ashforth, 1992). Organizational antecedents are one of two parts that directly influence organizational identification, the other being individual antecedents (Ashforth & Mael, 1992). Individual antecedents have been discussed in the literature and comprise five different concepts. The first of these is the amount of time an individual is actively involved with an organization, which is positively related with the level of identification the individual feels (Mael & Ashforth, 1992).

The second is symbiotic with the first in that the length of time since leaving the organization, and the discontinuation of a sense of a shared destiny and belongingness, is negatively associated to Organizational Identification.

Previous social identity theory literature has suggested that individuals will often retain multiple loosely significant identities as they move from various organizational involvements (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). However, these identities eventually do become blurred as they move from organization to organization within the same social classification (March & Simon, 1958).

The fourth is based upon the understanding that those individuals who establish identification with an organizational member that is charismatic or represents the organizations values, will in turn develop a deeper sense of identification with organization (Ashforth & Mael, 1989).

The fifth and final concept is observed through the perception of the individual of the organization's ability to accomplish the individual's goals. Organizations that allow for the accomplishment of an individual's goals and intentions will engender stronger senses of identification from its members.

These principles are important in the way in which we see group identity as a powerful tool and process that many university students encounter while becoming fans of their institution's sports teams or the institution itself. What makes university student's organizational identity process unique is the concept of the university itself. Students are voluntarily making a commitment to attend an institution for a considerable length of time (often four years), in order to receive a permanent recognition or achievement in the form of a degree or certificate from that respective institution. Because of this engendered effort and expectation, the organizational identification processes of university students is usually made at a deeper, more permanent level. University students are often surrounded by images, musings, information, and influence from their university on a daily basis; this allows for a deeper form of organizational identification than that of a community organization, or political party.

Team Identity

Furthering the concept of an individual establishing identity from a group is the concept of team identity. It can then be seen that an individual's established social identity with a given team, or team identity, is not merely a group identity, but provides a symbolic representation of other aspects of the individual's social or community life (e.g., geography, ethnicity, vocation, gender, etc. (Heere & James, 2007). With this in mind, group identity suggest that individuals who see themselves as fans of a sports team view themselves as more than just consumers of a product, but rather members of an intricate organization (Heere & James, 2007). These understandings are what make the processes of team identity similar, yet unique, when compared to Social Identity Theory and group Identification. Unique to sports teams is their ability to evoke strong emotional responses from their fans, which as discussed in previously in Group Identification, creates opportunities for stronger and deeper connections from individuals to their respective sports teams. Anderson & Stone (1981) were among the first discuss the symbolic power sports as an organization for individuals to identify with other members of their community.

This concept of sport as a vessel to create a sense of community is further represented in the presence of regional mascots and nicknames for a given city's professional teams. The Pittsburgh Steelers, Portland Trailblazers, and Minnesota Twins all provide opportunities for individuals residing in that city to connect themselves with the identity of a sports team because of the organization's regional moniker. Regional names can also be found in the mascot names of university athletic departments. In the Big 12 conference alone the Kansas Jayhawks, West Virginia Mountaineers, Oklahoma Sooners, Texas Longhorns, and TCU Horned Frogs all hold nicknames that are born from influences or historical occurrences in the region and community they call home. From this connection an ancillary reinforcement of the individual's identity with

their region is also obtained (Heere & James, 2007). This reinforcement is also used when universities use forms of social connection to engage with their fans. Activities such as pep rallies are more traditional, but the increasing usage of social media to connect to “plugged-in” individuals has resulted in farther reaching connections with students, alumni, and others who considered themselves *fans* of a university’s teams.

Team Identity and its impacts on self-esteem, consumer behavior, certainty, commitment, and satisfaction have been examined in previous sport management literature (Dimmock & Grove, 2006; Heere & James, 2007; Heere, James, Yoshida, & Scremin, 2011; Mahoney, Madrigal, & Howard, 2000; Wann & Branscombe, 1993; Wann & Pierce, 2005). Fans who possess a strong identification are more susceptible to emotional weaknesses and strengths that come from the successes and failures of their team (Wann & Branscombe, 1993). Luellen & Wann (2010) examined the role a specific outgroup to the individual, in this case a rival team. They found that the existence of an easily identifiable and long-standing rival team further strengthens the identification of the individual with his or her own team. This concept is easily traced and supported by the foundations of Social Identity Theory and its understanding of in group and out group identification. Heere & James (2007) expanded the literature on Team Identity by viewing the sports fan, as not just a consumer of product (game tickets, merchandise, etc.), but as a member of an organization and a community. They first recognized the concept that sports teams represent hybrid identity organizations, a concept that was first introduced by Albert & Whetten (1985). They posited that

an organization whose identity is composed of two or more types that would not normally be expected to go together. . . . It is not simply an organization with multiple components, but it considers itself (and others consider it), alternatively, or even simultaneously, to be two

different types of organizations. (p. 270)

Heere & James (2007) furthered this assertion by stating that a sports organization certainly fits this mold in that it represents a collection of owners, coaches, personnel, and players, while also representing a city, community, state or country. This has far-reaching implications for sports fans, as this allows them to view their teams and their communities together, as one holistic organization, rather than separately. Understanding this is what makes the power of sport fandom to an individual so innately powerful. It is this hybrid organization that represents both community and team that engenders deep feelings of identification and pushes the sports fan past the point of ticket purchaser and popcorn consumer to active stakeholder and organizational member. Examining sports fans as more than consumers can also be seen through the ownership structures of professional sports teams that are publically owned. The Green Bay Packers, Cleveland Indians, Boston Celtics, and Florida Panthers are North American professional sports organizations that are owned, in part, by its fans that have emotional and monetary stakes in their teams. In European professional sport, many organizations have ownership structures in which fans not only have a monetary stake in the club, but have voting rights over the determination of the president of the organization (Heere & James, 2007).

Wann and Branscombe (1991) discussed that a fan of a sports team engenders a sense of team identification that provides them with a sense of belonging and attachment to a larger social structure. This social structure allows for opportunities for both social capital and psychic income generation that often result in the creation of broader communities that connect individuals across demographics because of their deep identification with a team (Clopton, 2010). These communities are often self-fueling entities that are filled with individuals searching for group empowerment that comes from being united in something that is bigger than

themselves (Clopton, 2008). It is important to note that the benefits derived from an individual's attachment and identification to a team are furthered by the respective degree of attachment or identification. In the realm of college athletics, those students that have a greater sense of identification with the athletic department at the university are more likely to benefit from being part of intricate communities that create social benefits for the individual (Clopton, 2007; Clopton, 2008, Clopton, 2010).

Wann and Branscombe (1993) posited that it is important to note that not all sports fans are the same. This thought is ever prevalent in the various scales and measures of team identity. While each scale has their own merit and quality, they all strive to measure similar ideas that fall upon the basis of the variance of an individual's sports fandom or identification to a team. This is the underlying strength and power of the concept of team identification; not all fans are created equal, and an individual's level of fandom will have both effects on the outcomes of the individual and those entities that are involved in the sports industry.

University Identification

Much of the understanding of the concept of University Identification is fostered on the basis of Social Identity Theory, and Organizational Identification. Universities provide a unique and ever-present environment for the examination of individuals fostering social identities to a unique and easily identifiable organization. Much like sports organizations, universities and colleges represent more than just a collection of administrators, faculty and students. Mael & Ashforth (1992) first used universities to test organizational identification amongst alumni. Formal and informal alumni organizations have existed at American colleges and universities since the beginning of the 19th century (Brubacher & Rudy, 1976). The inherent benefits of these groups for the alumnus' continued affiliation with the university showcase themselves in

the form of intellectual stimulation, prestige, stability of identity, and as a vehicle for altruistic donations (Pickett, 1986). It has been stated that few groups are more important to an educational institution than its alumni (Randsell, 1986), and that alumni organizations are the financial backbone of the university (Bakal, 1979). With the importance that alumni play to their universities apparent, universities make active and conscious attempts to create feelings of identification with the university while students are currently studying. These come in the form of public service events sponsored by the university, tailgating and spirit activities, week long celebrations involving various campus and student groups, and through the active promotion of the university's achievements in both the press and throughout the campus information system. It is important to note that a student's attachment to their university or college is different than their attachment to the university's athletic department, however they can coalesce within each other. An individual who identifies strongly with the University of Kansas and its colleges, schools, and research may not necessarily identify strongly with the achievements of the Kansas Jayhawks Men's Basketball team. Bass, Gordon, & Kim (2012) created a unique and specific University Identification (UID) framework and model that posits that University Identification is comprised of three different antecedents: Athletic Program, Academic Program, and Individual. This framework is relevant in the current study in that it examines the simultaneous interaction of athletics and academics that make the framework of the American higher education institution unique when compared to its colleagues throughout the world.

However, important to the understanding of University Identification, and Social Identification in general is the awareness of an individual's antecedents. These were covered above in the discussion of organizational identification, but there are several concepts that have been found in the literature to be specific to University Identification. Antecedents represent the

thoughts and beliefs of an individual prior to the process of social identification with a particular group or organization. Of the antecedents discussed in context with organizational identification, the concepts of existence of a mentor-like relationship, number of organizations involved in, time spent with the organization, time spent away from the organization, and sentimentality play vital roles in the understanding and formation of an individual's University Identification.

The existence of a mentor-like relationship with a faculty member intuitively creates a greater opportunity for identification of university students (Hunt & Michael, 1983). Further, it is posited that this identification will be stronger in cases where the individual's mentor is still alive, still at the university, and they still maintain contact with the mentor (Mael & Ashforth, 1992).

Those individuals that transfer, or attend multiple institutions during their college career are less likely to develop a strong identification with a university compared to those individuals who attend just one institution under similar circumstances. Spaeth & Greeley (1970) found that the number of financial donations to a university by their alumni was inversely related to the number of institutions attended.

While in many social situations the amount of time an individual spends with an organization is positively related to the strength of their identification of that organization, this does not hold true in the case of University Identification. The process of attending higher education is finite in time and thus the individual's identity is neither positively or negatively affected by the length of time they spend at an institution relative to the number of institutions that individual attends (Mael & Ashforth, 1992).

This relationship of finite times holds true again when examining the effects of time away from an organization on an individual's identification. As discussed above college is unique because it is a finite experience beginning and ending in a span of several years. However, the

ties to an individual's university or college remain prevalent and fresh in their conscious for the rest of their lives. While the strength of the identification is negatively related to the number of years away from an institution, the rate of the decrease is much less than that of another organization in a different social class (Spaeth and Greeley, 1970).

The final individual antecedent relevant to University Identification is that of sentimentality. Sentimentality represents the role of personality variables as the factor in to Organizational Identification, and this case University Identification. Sentimentality has been defined as the tendency to retain emotional or tangible ties to one's past, and to derive pleasure from discussing the memories of one's past (Mael, 1988). In previous literature it has been argued that likelihood to hold on to and discuss memories of particular social connections in one's past can be a predictor of identification; Mael (1988) found that sentimentality was significantly correlated with college identification.

While much of the literature regarding University Identification has been grounded in theories of Organizational Identification, Bass et al. (2012) provide a very distinct scale with the specific goal to measure University Identification. By establishing three distinct antecedents (athletic program, academic program, and individual) that influence an individual's university identification they have grounded and recognized both the uniqueness of American higher education and the power of college athletics. This foundation is important in the way that both higher education and sport management administrators and scholars recognize the engines that drive passion for one's university. The symbiotic relationship that exists between athletics and academics in American higher education institution provides both intricate and powerful potentialities to strengthen the identification of an individual.

Benefits of Identification

With the prevalence of the discussion of Social Identity Theory and Organizational Identification, it seems pertinent to the understanding of these concepts to showcase the benefits ascertained from their existence. Important to the understanding of Social Identity Theory is that an individual categorizes themselves in to various social identities in an effort to create a sense of positive distinctiveness or self-concept (Tajfel & Turner, 1978). That is, individuals are more likely to join groups that allow for feelings of increased self-esteem or positive feedback. Scholars have also posited that feelings of identification in valuable social organizations create social networks that provide psychological support and often lead to increased mental health of the individual (Wann, 2006). Highly identified individuals can gain these psychological benefits even if they are not actively involved in the organization, but simply by identifying strongly with them, much like sports fans (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Mael & Ashforth, 2001).

Literature has also reflected that individuals gain greater benefits from being part of organizations that are prestigious or more successful (Roccas, 2005). This is often showcased in sports fandom by individuals identifying with prestigious or historically successful sport organizations, a process often called *basking in reflected glory* (End, Dietz-Uhler, Harrick, & Jacquemotte, 2002; Madrigal & Anderson, 2004).). Individuals inherently are motivated to bask in the reflected glory (BIRGing) of successful sport organizations, and garner positive psychological benefits from this association (Cialdini, Borden, Thorne, Walker, Freeman, Sloan, 1976). These benefits are heightened when individuals take actions that connect them to their winning teams, often done through the purchasing of season tickets, team merchandise, saying ‘we’ (Cialdini et al., 1976; Snyder, Lassegard, & Ford, 1986; Wann, Hamlet, Wilson, & Hodges, 1995). Specific to sports team identification, the level to which an individual views his or herself as an extension of the team, individuals who view themselves as fans of a local sports team or

organization have expressed higher levels of social self-esteem, social well-being, more frequent positive emotions, and higher levels of conscientiousness, openness, and extroversion (Branscombe & Wann, 1991; Wann, Dimmock, & Grove, 2003; Wann & Pierce, 2005). Specifically for college student team identification, Clopton (2008) found that students who exemplify higher levels of team identification in turn feel a greater sense of community. He posits that

“A “big win” can energize a campus, enliven the spirit of its students, and inspire its constituents. Furthermore, when students know that people are paying attention to their institution, there is a natural feeling of pride of the institution (Toma, 2003).” (p.344)

Feelings of community coupled with the social benefits garnered from team identification provide impetus for the importance of these theories and their continual existence in realm of the sports industry.

Motives and Points of Attachment

The theoretical constructs of motive and points of attachment represent similar, yet differing frameworks on the way individuals interact with the world (Woo, Trail, Kwon, & Anderson, 2009). It has been said, “motives are thought to be related to basic human ‘needs’ (McDonald, Milne, & Hong, 2002; Robinson & Trail, 2005), whereas points of attachment reflect a ‘psychological connection ‘ toward a certain entity (Kwon & Armstrong, 2004).” (Woo, Trail, Kwon, & Anderson, 2009; pg. 40). Sloan (1989) was among the first to investigate the causation of individuals to attend sporting events, he concluded that sports fans and event attendees resemble participants in many ways, highlighting the physical exertion and preparation for each contest. This highlights the value that sports have upon its fans, through psychological

motives; humans are innately triggered to participate in something, to be part of organizations. Being a fan yields the satisfaction of basic human desires in a socially acceptable way through the stimulation of stress, joy, stimulation, and euphoria (Sloan, 1989). The connection of human motives for sport and the search for pleasurable situation ties into the role of stimulation and joy in life moments that further engenders feelings of identity, and holds sports fandom as powerful tool in shaping an individual's social identity (Luellen & Wann, 2010). Andrew, Kim, O'Neal, Greenwell, & James (2009) used research based upon spectator motivations to purchase merchandise at MMA events. Their findings showcased that individuals whose motives were crowd experience and vicarious achievement were more likely to purchase merchandise than those whose motives consisted of being part of a dramatic event. Marketers have long expressed the importance of understanding the motivations behind consumers' actions, with reference to this research, the ability of sportswear companies recognizing the motivations of students to become fans of their university's athletic teams as well as their motivations in purchasing sportswear could lead to a better presentation of their products in the consumer base of students (Trail, Robinson, Dick, & Gillentine, 2003).

As discussed in detail sports team offer opportunities for an individual to develop a sense of self identity as a fan of a team (Heere & James, 2007; Wann & Branscombe, 1993). It has been found in previous research that team identification or attachment to a team is a key predictor in sport consumption behavior (Sloan, 1989; Wann & Branscombe, 1993). Anderson & Stone (1981), Clopton (2008), and Heere et al. (2013) have posited the ability of sports teams to be more than simply a sport organization, but representations of communities that allows for deeper feelings of connection for individuals in those communities. These deeper feelings of connection or attachments have been documented as providers of positive consequence that is

increased with the evolution of attachment (Trail, Fink, & Anderson, 2000). Through their research (Woo et al., 2009) suggest seven potential points of attachment for a given sports organization: the team, the players, the coach, the community, the sport, the university, and the level of sport. Through these seven points individuals are able to ascertain different points of the sport organization they feel most reflects and heightens their sense of identity towards the team.

Consumer Behavior in Sports

The importance of the understanding of consumer behavior in the field of sport management has showcased through a myriad of research. Consumer behavior at its heart seeks to describe the decisions, choices, satisfaction and brand relationships of the consumer in the marketplace (MacInnis & Folkes, 2009). The study therefore of consumer behavior seeks to understand the decision making processes of consumers to better understand what and how goods and services will react in the market (Trail, Robinson, & Kim, 2008). The consumer behavior research in the sport management specifically has focused on the factors that influence individuals to attend sporting contests (James & Ross, 2002; Sloan, 1989; Trail, Fink, & Anderson, 2000), while there is an increased interest in the understanding of the consumer in his or her purchasing intentions involving sport related merchandise (Kwon, Trail, & James, 2007; Lee, Trail, Lee, & Schoenstedt, 2013). From the research it has been found that an individual's purchasing decisions are based upon their attachment, identification, or loyalty to a given sport organization (Andrew et al., 2009; Kwon et al., 2007). Kwon et al. (2007) also found that the level of perceived value that a consumer feels they receive from the purchase of a product factors in to their purchasing decision, and that this variable drove the purchase intention decision making among college sport merchandise purchases, not that of team identification. Understanding the way in which consumers interact with the marketplace, and what drives them

to make certain decisions is pertinent to any industry, but in an industry where consumer dollars come at a premium understanding consumer behavior becomes paramount in the world of sports (Sloan, 1989).

Brand Equity

Brand equity has become a critical conscientious issue among sports marketers, as the both the demand and popularity of the sports industry has increased on a global scale. Keller (1993) defined brand equity in terms of "...the marketing effects uniquely attributable to the brand – for example, when certain outcomes result from the marketing of a product or service because of its brand name that would not occur if the same product or service did not have that name." (p. 1). This definition provides clear pertinence in terms of examining the concept of brand equity as it relates to the sportswear industry. Brand equity not only provides an interesting vehicle for scholars to study the interaction of consumers and their decision making, but also for firms and companies to understand the power and effectiveness of their *brands* as they are observed in the consumer marketplace (Keller, 1993; Mortanges & Riel, 2003; Torres & Tribo, 2011). When a firm or company is able to understand the value and positive characteristics of its brand, it gains a competitive advantage among its competitors in the marketplace. Brand equity has also been seen as a significant positive predictor of purchasing intentions and greater consumer preference (Cobb-Walgren, Ruble, Donthu, 1995). This competitive advantage becomes incredibly pertinent in markets and industries where the competitors make and sell products that have similar characteristics and benefits. Examples of these markets include soft drinks (Coca-Cola and Pepsi), electronic gaming consoles (Xbox and PlayStation), credit cards (Visa and MasterCard) and with particular interest to this research is the market for sportswear and athletic footwear (adidas, Nike, and Under Armour). The value of

brand has important implications upon the well being of the consumer as well. Brands, much like teams and universities, can be used by consumers to create a positive construction of their self identity (Elliott & Wattanasuwan, 1998). By choosing brands that project particular image associations (sporty, high fashion, etc.) consumers then seek to project certain perceptions about themselves to the society that surrounds them (Wu & Chalip, 2013).

While brand equity has strong managerial implications for sport administrators in terms of sponsorship and marketing decisions, the understanding of brand equity for the current research will be from the consumer's point of view. Central to understanding brand equity, is first understanding the multidimensionality of a *brand*. Simply stated a *brand* is a name, symbol, image, design, or combination thereof that identifies a service provided by a seller to the consumer (Barich & Kotler, 1991; Keller, 1993). Those recognizable characteristics that make up brand are called *brand identities* and the sum of these identities represents the "totality of the brand." (Keller, 1993, p.2). Knowledge of a brand in the mind of a consumer's behavior has been well documented in the literature (Alba, Hutchinson, & Lynch, 1991; Keller, 1993; Keller, 2003). The depth of the knowledge of a brand "relates to the cognitive representation of the brand (Peter & Olson, 2001)." (Keller, 2003, p.596). This is important for sport administrators to grasp, but specifically allows for a deeper understanding of what the consumer will think, feel, and recall when presented with a brand. The feeling attained by a consumer when they are presented by a brand is difficult to quantify monetarily, however that does not mean that a consumer is not fostering a deeper sense of value when they experience a brand that they believe to have value. This value is shown through incremental utility that the consumer believes they are engendering because they have chosen to purchase a given brand over another (Aaker, 1991; Yoo & Donthu, 2000). Scholars have posited various multidimensional concepts and constructs

for what is comprised within brand equity. Aaker (1991) stated that brand equity is comprised of brand loyalty, brand awareness, perceived quality, brand associations, and other proprietary brand assets. Keller (1993), as discussed above suggests that brand knowledge is the foundation of brand equity and that it is comprised of brand awareness and brand image. Yoo & Donthu (2000) recognize and discuss perceived quality, brand loyalty, and brand awareness with strong brand associations as common dimensions of brand equity.

Research has been done analyzing the purchasing decisions of sports consumers and merchandise (Kwon, Trail, & James, 2007; Lee & Trail, 2011; Lee, Trail, Lee, & Schoenstedt, 2013). Specifically, Kwon et al. (2007) engendered a discussion upon the effects of team identification and its resulting impact on the purchasing intentions of college team licensed apparel. In their work, they found that team identification alone was not a significant indicator of purchasing intention, and that a product's perceived value must be accounted for when examining consumer intentions.

This research examines the absence of purchasing intentions of college students related to the sportswear brand that has a visible identity as the official outfitter of the athletic department. Unique to the general identity of a college student is their level of income, which often hovers around the poverty line in the United States (NCES.gov; HHS.gov). Instinctively this means that when posed with questions about their purchasing intentions towards sportswear, college students may not be able to adequately respond to such questions. This is why brand equity provides a valuable metric to the understanding and perceptions of a brand to a student, without actually engendering them to make or recall purchasing intentions. Through the literature, positive relationships between an individual's perception of brand equity and their intent to purchase a product have been found (Cobb-Walgren, Ruble, & Donthu, 1995; Esch, Langer,

Schmitt, & Geus, 2006).

Yoo & Donthu (2000) proposed a multidimensional scale that investigates brand equity, and its various components. In their scale they posited three distinct dimensions that comprise multidimensional brand equity, perceived quality, brand awareness, and brand loyalty. The use of this scale accounts for the issues that could have been encountered should questions regarding actual purchasing intentions.

The study of brand equity has extensive implications in the way that sport administrators examine the role of their marketing efforts on their potential and returning consumers. Those organizations that possess high levels of brand equity often display higher levels of brand loyalty, and customer retention; concepts that can have positive implications on a company's bottom line. Imperative to this research is to investigate if adidas' investment in the University of Kansas Athletics Department to portray them visually as an "adidas school" has any implications on the way in which students at the University of Kansas view adidas in the sportswear marketplace. By investigating questions of both Team Identity and University Identity's affect on brand equity perceptions, the research aims to discover how far reaching the identity of "adidas school" has spread (specifically athletics or university as well) and what this means to students and their views of adidas products. The implications can have far reaching profitability possibilities for adidas or other sportswear brands that sponsor sport organizations. This research posits two potential hypotheses:

H1: The level of team identity an individual displays towards the Kansas Jayhawks basketball team will have a positive relationship with the perceived level of brand equity towards adidas. (Appendix I).

H2: The level of university identity an individual displays towards the University of Kansas will have a weaker, but still positive relationship with the perceived level of brand equity towards adidas. (Appendix II).

Methodology and Framework

Population and Sample Selection

For the current research, an examination of students from a single NCAA Division I university from a major athletic conference was selected. It is at this level that college athletic competition is the highest with the largest magnitude of athletic department budgets and exposure. This particular university's athletic department also holds on of the largest sportswear contracts in the realm of college athletics from adidas (Kish, 2013). The athletic teams at this institution are of high profile and the student and fan support has garnered significant notoriety (ESPN.com). A purposeful sampling selection method was used for this research. With a purposeful sampling method, certain goals and objectives can be achieved from the sample of the population (Maxwell, 1996).

Participants

Participants for the study were selected using the public access records of the University of Kansas as well as access to the Health, Sport and Exercise Science Department's students and faculty with the determination that each individual selected was classified as a "student" be it undergraduate or graduate. Students were chosen at random from the university's online public access records and randomly from classes within the Health, Sport and Exercise Science department with instructors' approval, for a total of 1,100 individuals selected for the study. Once the data were collected, email addresses were uploaded into the online survey system Qualtrics.com for dissemination. Of those emails that were sent only 833 were received, while 103 students were polled in Health, Sport and Exercise Science classes. Of those, 249 surveys were returned, with 191 usable for data analysis for a response rate of 20.4%. Information

collected from these students included only first and last name and email address. The goal of the participant sample was to understand the broad base understanding of a diverse university student body. Undergraduate and graduate students, male and female were all part of this study's participant sample, however those metrics were not recorded because they were not deemed necessary for the functionality of the study. Once the data were collected, email addresses were uploaded into the online survey system Qualtrics.com for dissemination.

Scales and Instruments

Three different scales and instruments were used to measure the three distinct concepts used in the research question. The following will delve in to the literature that supports the use of the research scales and instruments used in this study.

Team Identification Instrument

To measure the concept of Team Identification, Wann & Branscombe's (1993) seminal scale of fan identification (Sport Spectator Identification Scale [SSIS]) was used. The scale posits seven question items rated on a Likert-scale format with endpoints at 6 (Strongly Agree) and 1 (Strongly Disagree). A sample item from the SSIS is, "I strongly see myself as a fan of the KU basketball team." Items were left unmodified because the original study investigated the same participants and same relative research question, the team identification of University of Kansas students. Higher numbers in this case represented greater amounts of allegiance, as the items were reverse coded. Wann & Branscombe (1993) noted that the results of the instrument in their testing did not differ in respect to gender, which made the instrument ideal in this research as gender metrics were not accounted for. In its initial testing the scale was found to be internally consistent, reporting a Cronbach's alpha of $\alpha = .91$. It was also found to be unidimensional measure where all seven question items measured the same construct of

allegiance to team (Wann & Branscombe, 1993). The scale resulted in a mean of 4.38 ($\sigma = 1.39$) with a maximum of 6.00.

University Identification Instrument

The measurement used to investigate students' level of university identification comes from Mael & Ashforth's (1992) study of organizational identification in university settings. The scale consisted of eight total items that examine two separate constructs, organizational identification and perceived organizational prestige. The scale posits eight question items rated on a Likert-scale format with endpoints at 1 (Strongly Agree) and 6 (Strongly Disagree). Specifically, four question items measure for organizational identification with higher numbers in this case represented greater amounts of organization identification, as the items were reverse coded. A sample question item examining organizational identification is, "I am very interested in what others think about KU." In each item "University of Kansas" or "KU" was substituted into the item as stipulated by the scale. Four question items measure perceived organizational prestige, where higher scores represented greater amounts of perceived prestige, as the items were reverse coded. A sample question item examining perceived organizational prestige is, "People in my community think highly of the University of Kansas." As with the items examining organizational identification, "University of Kansas" or "KU" was substituted into the items as stipulated by the directions of the scale. While the scale attempts the broader concept of organizational identification, it is often used in university identification research because its items are geared specifically for an educational organization (Mael & Ashforth, 1992). The data resulted in a mean score of 4.70 ($\sigma = 1.00$). for organizational identification and 4.83 ($\sigma = 0.57$). for perceived organizational prestige, each with a maximum of 6.00.

Brand Equity Measurement

To measure the concept of Brand Equity, Yoo & Donthu's (2000 & 2001) Multidimensional and Overall Brand Equity scale was used. The original scale contained 34 items that measured nine different constructs (price, store image, distribution intensity, advertising spending, price deals, perceived quality, brand loyalty, brand associations with brand awareness, and overall brand equity, and multidimensional brand equity). For the current research only the items used to measure the constructs of perceived quality, brand loyalty, brand associations with brand awareness, multidimensional brand equity and overall brand equity were used. This was because those constructs held particular relevance and significance in the understanding of the hypothesis listed previously. An example question item examining both perceived quality and multidimensional brand equity is, "The likely quality of adidas is extremely high." In the scale multidimensional brand equity is measured by taking an average of ten question items (19, 20, 23, 24, 25, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31); overall brand equity is measured by taking the average of four question items (32, 33, 34, 35). Yoo & Donthu's scale provides a powerful metric in that it generates nine potential variables. Of the possible nine, five variables were generated from the constructs and question items used in the research as discussed above. The resulting data showed means of 4.77 ($\sigma = 0.78$) for perceived quality, 3.51 ($\sigma = 0.70$) for brand loyalty, 5.37 ($\sigma = 0.75$) for brand associations with brand awareness, 3.07 ($\sigma = 1.21$) for overall brand equity, and 4.66 ($\sigma = 0.60$) for multidimensional brand equity, all with a maximum of 6.00.

Data Analysis and Results

Analysis of Data

To analyze the data for the proposed hypothesis, means values were calculated for the variables analyzed in the study. These values were reported previously in the methodology portion of this research. Using the data, Pearson Correlations were calculated that measured the correlation between each variable. A linear regression analysis was then calculated using multidimensional brand equity as the dependent variable with the remaining variables used as independent variables. A second linear regression was calculated with overall brand equity used as the independent variable and the remaining variables used as independent variables. Finally two additional linear regression models were calculated with brand associations with brand awareness and perceived brand quality as the dependent variables respectively. In each regression team identification, university identification, and perceived external organizational prestige were used as independent variables.

Results

The Pearson Correlations provide pertinent information related to the hypothesis of this research and are presented in Appendix III. Both team identity ($r = -0.036$) and university identity ($r = -0.060$) held negative correlations with multidimensional brand equity, which forces the rejection of the first hypothesis that team identification would have a positive relationship with multidimensional brand equity of adidas, and forces the rejection of the second hypothesis that university identification would have a weak, but positive relationship with the multidimensional brand equity of adidas. Team identity ($r = -0.011$) and university identity ($r = -0.026$) also held negative correlations with overall brand equity. Consistent with the literature

(Clopton, 2007; 2010) team identity held a positive correlation with both university identity ($r = 0.219, p < 0.001$) and perceived external organizational prestige ($r = 0.080, p < 0.001$). The formulated variables stemming from the multidimensional brand equity scale all held positive correlations with one another that were significant ($p < 0.001$), which validates the strength and consistency of the scale in predicting the concept of both multidimensional and overall brand equity.

Examining the regression analysis also reveals pertinent implications to the proposed hypothesis presented in this research. The first regression used multidimensional brand equity as the dependent variable with team identity, university identity, perceived external organizational prestige, and the brand equity component variables as independent variables. Results showed sentiment towards the causation of the hypotheses presented in this research. In this instance team identity was a negative predictor of multidimensional brand equity ($\beta = -0.004$), however the value was not statistically significant ($p = 0.621$). Perceived external organizational prestige was also a negative predictor of multidimensional brand equity ($\beta = -0.007$), however not statistically significant ($p = 0.446$). University identity in this instance was a positive predictor of multidimensional brand equity ($\beta = 0.008$), and while it was the most statistically significant of the hypothesized variables to affect both overall and multidimensional brand equity, it was still not statistically significant ($p = 0.370$).

In the second regression that examines overall brand equity as the dependent variable, team identity, along with the brand equity components, positively predicts overall brand equity ($\beta = 0.003$), however the value is not significant ($p = 0.966$). Perceived external organizational prestige also is a positive predictor of overall brand equity ($\beta = 0.035$), however the value is also not significant ($p = 0.625$). The variable of university identity is a negative predictor of overall

brand equity ($\beta = -0.044$), but is not significant ($p = 0.546$). From statistical theory, it can be stated that the only significant predictors of overall brand equity in the model are those variables that are components of the multidimensional brand equity scale. The relationships generated by the regression are displayed in Appendix IV.

The final two regression analyses were run to calculate whether the hypothesized variables maintained any significant effects upon singular brand equity components, in this case perceived brand quality and brand associations with brand awareness. The regression examining perceived brand quality as the dependent variable resulted in team identity ($\beta = -0.012$, $p = 0.848$) and university identity ($\beta = 0.008$, $p = 0.903$) with some affect on the model, although both variables were not statistically significant. The final regression examined brand associations with brand awareness as the dependent variable with team identity and university identity serving as the independent variables. Team identity held a negative relationship ($\beta = -0.022$, $p = 0.773$), while university identity held a positive relationship ($\beta = 0.004$, $p = 0.958$), however the variables were not statistically significant. While, the linear regression analyses did not produce any statistically significant results in relation to the hypothesized variables, the lack of statistically significant effect can be cause for further discussion.

Discussion and Implications

Discussion

The current study set out to examine the relationship that the constructs of team identification and university identification had on a college students brand equity perceptions of the official sportswear provider of their university's athletic teams. The hypotheses posited regarding this relationship elicited the belief that a student's level of team identification and university identification would have a positive relationship in terms of their perception of the brand equity of their university's athletic teams' official sportswear brand. The first hypothesis expressed the belief that team identification would have a positive relationship upon a University of Kansas student's perceptions of the brand equity of adidas. The second hypothesis stated that a University Kansas student's level of university identity would have a weaker, but still positive relationship with the brand equity perception of adidas. The rationale behind these motives is explained in the literature review, however there is some intuitiveness in its positing. As discussed sportswear companies are spending large amounts of money to sign university athletic departments to lucrative contracts. These contracts provide sportswear companies with the exclusive status as the university's exclusive provider for its athletic teams, a status that the sportswear company could leverage against the brand of both the university and its athletic teams to make their own products appear in a brighter limelight (Kish, 2013; Sanburn, 2013). Recent sportswear contracts have shown that companies are committed to increasing their visibility amongst high profile college athletics (Kish, 2013), and are spending to "own the campus." (Kish, 2013). With this effort noted in the press, it would seem that a targeted group for these sportswear companies would be the students at the university's they are in contract with.

Students provide a contextual audience that sportswear companies have the opportunity to engender an active point of attachment that results in a populous of consumers that are loyal to their brand (Edson Escalas, 2004). In a highly competitive industry whose products can be called clear substitutes for one another, creating points of attachment with potential consumers has long run competitive advantage implications (Thomsen, MacInnis, & Park, 2005). Team identification has a strong, grounded framework in the construct of Social Identity Theory, and with this comes the understanding of how powerful the role of being a fan of team is in the definition of individual's identity (Anderson & Stone, 1981; Clopton, 2007; Heere & James, 2007; Wann & Branscombe, 1993). Literature has shown the role of the student-fan in college athletics, and how central that identity becomes to university and college students in their ability to generate feelings of a sense of community and interpersonal connections with other students on campus (Clopton, 2008; Toma, 2003). Because the capacity for team identity among college students is so large, it seems an intuitive argument to believe that the greater the level of team identification a college students exhibits the more likely that individual will identify with all aspects of the university's athletic teams, notably their official sportswear provider. The construct of university identification, is also grounded in Social Identity Theory, and has been reviewed in research as pertinent tool in an individual's social identification. Much like an individual's identification as a fan of a sports team, identify with one's university reflects a deep sense of social identification that allows one to form a firm reflection of themselves in society (Mael & Ashforth, 1992). Not only is an individual's identification to a university important for themselves, but having a group of well-identified individuals is vital to many financial conditions of a university (Bakal, 1979; Randsall 1986). Increasingly, the sportswear contracts that are negotiated between athletic departments and sporting good companies now hold implications for

parts of the university as well. In fact, the boundaries between athletics departments and the university as a whole has become blurred in relation to contracts and agreements with sportswear. Many examples of this have come to public attention recently: The University of Oregon's trademarked logo was in fact designed by sportswear company Nike, University of Alabama officials and administrators (those not employed by the athletic department) are required to wear Nike apparel and footwear at public events, and some university presidents are being included as beneficiaries in contracts made between sportswear companies and athletic departments (Kish, 2013). As mentioned above sportswear companies are doing whatever it takes to "own the campus," and this means the university as a whole, not particularly the athletic department. Because of this, it could be posited that the university's identity itself reflects the relevance of its athletic departments official sportswear brand, giving more clout to the "Nike school or adidas school" identity (Katz, 2012).

The data presented in this research reflect a different conclusion, and one that is counterintuitive to the current media and press regarding the relationship between universities and sportswear companies. The correlation and regression analysis show that the relationships between team identity, university identity and brand equity measures are not statistically significant. This result causes the rejection of both the first and second hypothesis of this research. There could be several causations for the lack of a definitive conclusion in this research. The heart of this conclusion could lie in the theories grounded in the constructs of motives and points of attachment. As discussed previously, points of attachment constructs reflect a psychological connection towards a certain entity (Kwon & Armstrong, 2004; Woo et al., 2009). Woo et al., (2009) posits that there are seven unique points of attachment that are demonstrated by a sports organization: the team, the players, the coach, the community, the

sport, the university, and the level of sport. From the data we can see that team identification, university identification, and perceived external prestige of students at the University of Kansas is quite high with a means of 4.38, 4.70, and 4.83 out of a possible 6.00. The fact, that students reported higher mean scores for university identity and perceived external prestige show that students at the University of Kansas are more identified with the university itself than its athletic teams. This could be seen as the profound effect that limits team identity from being a significant predictor of the brand equity of adidas. The students' attachment or identification to their university's athletic teams is based upon their attachment to the university, and not their attachment to athletics itself.

Discussed in the literature review, is an individual's propensity to engender motives that lead them to points of attachment that satisfy their needs for vicarious achievement (Andrew et al., 2009; Woo et al., 2009). At a tradition-laden, successful college basketball program, such as the University of Kansas, a student's need for vicarious achievement them to the points of attachment of: the team, the coach, the players, and the sport. Their attachment to the university is engendered internally through their identity as a student. The lack of spillover effects that could lead to positive perceptions of brand equity of the official sportswear provider does not occur because students points of attachment and therefore team identity levels end at the team, the coach, the players, and the sport.

With this relationship visible, it can be postulated that internal members, in this research university students, showcase lower levels of brand equity spillovers because they are thoroughly identified as a member of the university. External members, in this case casual fans or community members, may display higher levels of brand equity spillover because they have more limited points of attachment to the sport organization. In the case of the casual fan who is

not a member of the relevant community (current or former student), their only points of attachment may be the coach, the players, the team and the sport. In that instance every point of attachment for that individual will be visible wearing branded sportswear provided by the official sportswear company. Without a deep connection to the university itself, the casual fan sees the universities athletic teams much the same way they would view a professional sports organization, which could lead to greater brand equity spillover effects. This is due to the varying levels of visible foci of commitment for organizations, which could lead to different foci or targets of social-psychological commitment for fans (Masuoka & Fujimoto, 2002; Woo et al., 2009). For external group members (those not students or alumni) who are fans of intercollegiate athletic teams see their foci of commitment being the team, players and coaches themselves to satisfy their need for vicarious achievement. In this case sportswear and footwear become a very visible integral tool in the success of the team, players, and coaches, and because of this, purchasing those products that the intercollegiate athletic teams use allows for an opportunity for feelings of greater assimilation and attachment to the team. This rationale could explain the discrepancy found in the results of this research, and are cause for further research examining team identification and brand equity perception of community members or non-student fans of intercollegiate athletic teams.

Implications and Conclusion

The implications of the findings of this research are quite telling. The rejection of the two posited hypotheses causes a rethinking in the way in which sportswear companies market, or leverage their brands to foster greater long-term financial success. The positive relationship between a company's brand equity and their financial success has been presented in numerous research (Cobb-Walgren et al., 1995) and because in this case students who identify with both

the university's athletic teams, and the university itself do not have a statistically significant effect upon the brand equity of the official sportswear company of the athletic department; it would seem that the official sportswear company then would want to leverage its branding and exposure garnered from their sponsorship status upon those individuals who are not internal members (students) of the organization. This would mean that greater marketing efforts must be taken throughout the community to engender external group members, in this case non-student fans, to have positive emotions about the sportswear brand. In the terms of the scope of this research, the findings would suggest that adidas create a greater marketing effort throughout the city of Lawrence and the state of Kansas at large using the their identity and that of the Kansas Jayhawks together to elicit positive feelings of brand equity towards adidas. The suggestion comes at the backbone of the findings from the research that external members in this case only achieve the points of attachment to the Kansas Jayhawks through that of the team, the players, the coach, and the sport (Woo et al., 2009). At each of the points of attachment adidas holds an outwardly visible appearance through the number of logos on uniforms, footwear, and the apparel worn by team personnel. By leveraging the points of attachment, the brands visibility during these instances of attachment, and the status of the Kansas Jayhawks as a representation of both a community and a state (Heere & James, 2007) adidas could elicit positive brand equity perceptions.

The findings also have implications grounded in the marketing and leveraging of internal group member, which are represented in this research by active students of the university. Sportswear company administrators have been quoted stating that the large sportswear contracts that are more than \$25 million in value are meant to allow the sportswear brand to “own the campus.” (Kish, 2013). However, this research reflects that this is not the case, particularly at an

institution and athletic department that holds the largest footwear, apparel and equipment allowance in the entire adidas college contract portfolio (Kish, 2013). If adidas were to truly “own the campus” they could leverage the identifiable organization of the University of Kansas and the Kansas Jayhawks into positive perceptions of brand equity amongst a consumer base that upon its graduation from the university will have higher average levels of income compared to non-college graduates. The students surveyed for this research displayed fairly high levels of team identification ($M = 4.38$), university identification ($M = 4.70$), and perceived external organizational prestige ($M = 4.83$) which gives adidas the opportunity to leverage an already highly identified and attached consumer base. With increased marketing of their products and technologies on a stage that allows for unparalleled opportunity to showcase the brand’s depth and scope adidas could engender a fervent consumer base that normally may not have been accessible without their status as the official sportswear provider of the Kansas Jayhawks. If nothing else adidas has the opportunity to showcase the quality of its products, increase brand awareness, and engender a sense of loyalty to the brand, components that form the construct of multidimensional brand equity (Yoo & Donthu, 2000) which has been known to have a positive relationship among consumer purchasing intentions. However, adidas could have leveraged their brand against the identity of the Kansas Jayhawks and the University of Kansas and pushed their marketing efforts too far. Causing their brand to become ubiquitously diluted to the point where it was no longer recognizable from an equity perspective for KU students. Research has found that brand dilution can occur in the long run if a company does not adequately regulate their price markups in the short run (Kort, Caulkins, Hartl, Feichtinger, 2006). Adidas has been the official sportswear provider for the Kansas Jayhawks since 2005, and recently renewed that agreement to last until 2019. Adidas has held a presence on the University of Kansas campus for

nine years, and it is a possibility that their brand has become diluted among college students because they're presence has remained the same for so long. A shift in the marketing efforts or targets may allow adidas to reconnect with its lost consumer base.

Finally, it also possible that adidas products are branded and priced in such a way where they seem to luxury goods to college students, and thus are not part of their preferences (Beattie & LaFrance, 2006). Because more affordable options are available from different sportswear brands, students' perceptions of adidas may already be swayed in a negative direction simply because of the bias of exclusivity and price (Keller, 1993; Pitta & Katsanis, 1995). Should this be the case, it would cause adidas to market their products in a manner that goes affordability or to create products that are geared towards affordability that may be more appealing to college students.

Research Limitations

The current research suffered from several potential limitations that could have had an impact on the results and understanding of the hypotheses. Several limitations must be accounted for when examining data specifically for the current research. First, low response rates could create nonresponse bias, however this phenomena has been documented as an increasing trend among Americans and particularly students in participating in survey-based research (Dey, 1997). The second limitation lies in the lack of demographic information taken for the study. Without such information causation patterns between variables could be difficult to obtain, and could result in weak modeling. While, the overall goal was to examine a unified student body, collection of demographical information could have been beneficial.

Due to the lack of demographical information used in the study, variables of team identification, and brand equity of sportswear could have been biased upwards or downwards.

Notably, those surveys conducted in Health, Sport, and Exercise Science Department courses held a majority of male students compared to their female peers. However, this yielded no such bias, as both the correlations and regression coefficients were statistically significant for the variables of team identity and brand equity.

The current research also surveyed students from only one particular university, from one particular athletic conference, with one particular sportswear contracted company. Due to the perceptions of the conference, institution, or sportswear brand bias could have occurred that would have influenced the results. The limitation of only surveying students, could have also limited the scope and nature of the results of the study. Expanding the sample population to non-student fans or alumni in this case could have allowed for different results. While the goal for the research was to measure a unified student body, taking measures for undergraduate versus graduate students could have allowed for an understanding of potential biasing, and perhaps a better understanding of the low brand equity results.

The data analyses undertaken in this research too have limitations. Both Pearson Correlations and linear regression analysis only examine the linear relationships between the calculated variables. Pearson Correlations specifically measure the correlation between an X and Y variable on a linear plane. These correlations do not imply relationships, and do not imply cause and effect. Pearson correlations are also highly sensitive to extreme values, which have the potential to bias the data. Linear regression analyses too measure the linear relationship of the variables on an X and Y plane, and thus are not accurate predictors of potential non-linear relationships. Like Pearson Correlations, linear regression analyses cannot ascertain causal implications, merely the linear relationships amongst the analyzed variables.

The sample population in this research only examined students from one particular institution with one particular sportswear contract. Thus, the results from the research are limited only to the understanding of that unique relationship. Examining other institutions and athletic departments that hold agreements with another particular sportswear company could have lead to different results.

Areas for Further Research

Based upon the findings of this research several areas for further research are provided. While there has been an increasing myriad of research examining licensed sports merchandise consumption a focus on the consumer behavior patterns and brand equity perceptions of college students related to sportswear consumption should be developed. With the magnitude of college athletics, and the increasing role that sportswear brands are playing in the college sport framework. As discussed in the research limitations expanding the population to students from other universities that differ in NCAA division, conference, and sportswear company contract could expand the understanding and further decipher the role of team and university identity upon brand equity perceptions. However, the focus on this form of research should be focused on those institutions that hold large sportswear contracts, as it is those agreements that should result in most ardent opportunities for brand exposure. Replicating the research but expanding the sample population to include, or to focus solely on external group members, who in this case represent non-student fans, could shed light on a different conducive relationship for sportswear companies in engendering positive feelings of brand equity.

As discussed previously adding metric that measured undergraduate versus graduate students could have accounted for some sort of biasing, or to more truly understand where sportswear companies, in this case adidas, focus their marketing efforts. By targeting those

students that are more responsive to the sportswear brand, the company could elicit positive feelings of brand equity.

Measuring the same research question at other institutions provides for a more diverse population, but also for a more diverse scope of athletic departments. For the current study a large NCAA Division I athletic department was chosen. However, the history and the scope of this athletic department is different than its peers across the country. The University of Kansas holds a rich and successful history of men's basketball, and while it has achieved some success in other sports, it is men's basketball that carries the limelight. In future research, choosing different institutions is important, but choosing different institutions that hold different athletic scopes is imperative. In the NCAA the sports of football and men's basketball supply the majority of the revenue to each individual athletic department through ticket sales, media rights, and advertising opportunities. This research examined one of the major college men's basketball programs; it would be suggested in future research to examine a major college football program, with a differing sportswear contract than the institution used in this research. The results could provide a pertinent insight in to the difference between 'football schools' and 'basketball schools,' and the way that may affect brand equity.

In previous research, it has been found that team identity is not a significant predictor of purchasing intentions (Kwon et al., 2007). However, little research has examined the role affective behavior among sports fans and their perceived brand equity or purchasing intentions of sportswear. Kwon et al., (2005) found that affective loyalty behavior resulted in greater points of attachment possibilities. This could have implications in to the role of individual's attachment to the athletic department, and in particular the official sportswear brand. Further research

examining an individual's affective commitment to a college athletic team, and their subsequent perceptions of brand equity would help to examine the role of affective loyalty.

Kwon & Armstrong (2006) examined the role of impulse purchases of college team-licensed merchandise amongst university students. While impulse buying of team-licensed merchandise is heightened at levels of team identification, university identification, and team commitment, there has been no investigation upon the role of impulse buying and non-licensed team merchandise, but distributed by the athletic departments official sportswear provider.

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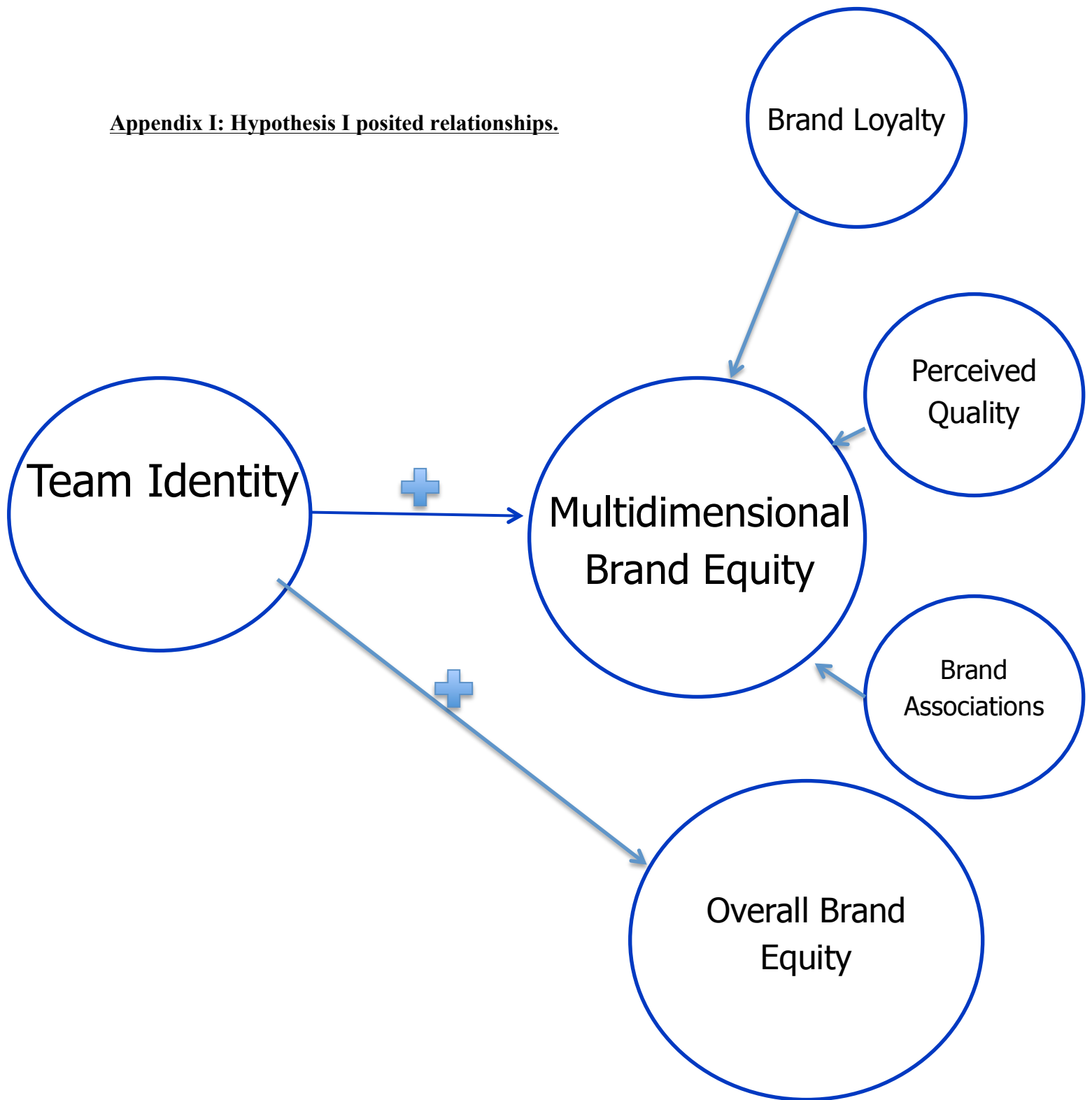
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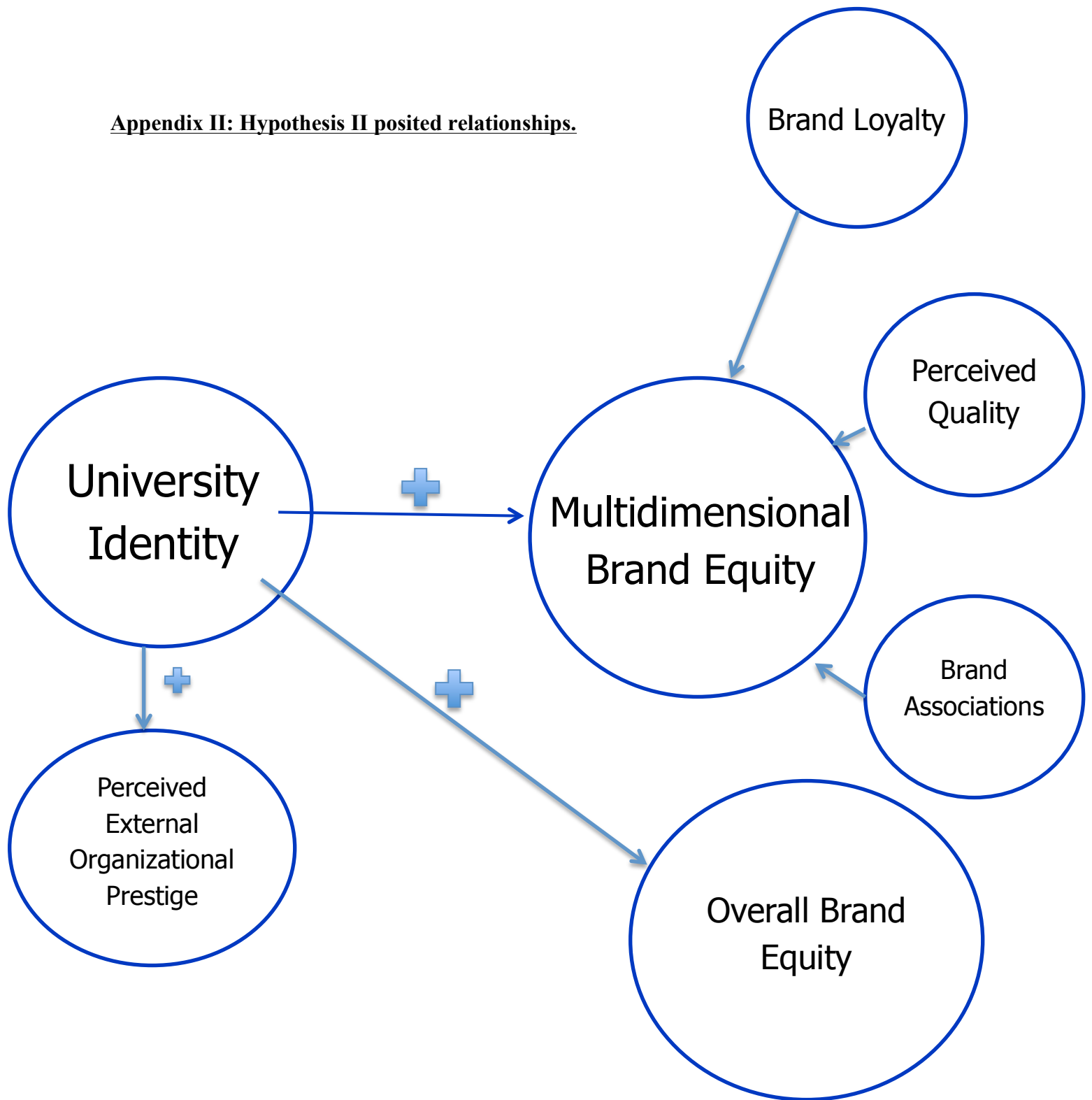
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Appendix I: Hypothesis I posited relationships.



Appendix II: Hypothesis II posited relationships.



Appendix III: Pearson Correlations

		Correlations							
		Team Identity	University Identity	Perceived External Prestige	Perceived Quality	Brand Loyalty	Brand Associations	Overall Brand Equity	Multidimensional Brand Equity
Team Identity	Pearson Correlation	1	.219**	.079	-.016	-.007	-.043	-.014	-.037
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.002	.274	.826	.928	.559	.849	.615
	N	191	190	191	191	191	191	191	191
University Identity	Pearson Correlation	.219**	1	.421**	-.001	.014	-.110	-.026	-.060
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002		.000	.991	.846	.131	.717	.412
	N	190	190	190	190	190	190	190	190
Perceived External Prestige	Pearson Correlation	.079	.421**	1	.070	.046	-.016	.048	.023
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.274	.000		.339	.527	.831	.507	.751
	N	191	190	191	191	191	191	191	191
Perceived Quality	Pearson Correlation	-.016	-.001	.070	1	.468**	.429**	.393**	.719**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.826	.991	.339		.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	191	190	191	191	191	191	191	191
Brand Loyalty	Pearson Correlation	-.007	.014	.046	.468**	1	.296**	.459**	.685**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.928	.846	.527	.000		.000	.000	.000
	N	191	190	191	191	191	191	191	191
Brand Associations	Pearson Correlation	-.043	-.110	-.016	.429**	.296**	1	.228**	.855**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.559	.131	.831	.000	.000		.002	.000
	N	191	190	191	191	191	191	191	191
Overall Brand Equity	Pearson Correlation	-.014	-.026	.048	.393**	.459**	.228**	1	.437**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.849	.717	.507	.000	.000	.002		.000
	N	191	190	191	191	191	191	191	191
Multidimensional Brand Equity	Pearson Correlation	-.037	-.060	.023	.719**	.685**	.855**	.437**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.615	.412	.751	.000	.000	.000		
	N	191	190	191	191	191	191	191	191

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Appendix IV: Regression Results

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	-.982	.936		-1.050	.295	-2.828	.864					
	Mean Team Identity	.003	.060	.003	.042	.966	-.115	.121	-.011	.003	.003	.951	1.051
	univavg	-.053	.087	-.044	-.605	.546	-.224	.119	-.026	-.045	-.039	.778	1.285
	pepmean	.073	.149	.035	.490	.625	-.221	.366	.048	.036	.031	.818	1.223
	Mean Perceived Quality	.356	.121	.229	2.945	.004	.118	.595	.404	.213	.188	.673	1.485
	bl_mean	.584	.126	.340	4.646	.000	.336	.831	.457	.325	.296	.761	1.314
	Mean Brand Associations	.037	.115	.023	.321	.749	-.191	.265	.227	.024	.020	.789	1.268

a. Dependent Variable: Mean Overall Brand Equity

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	-.122	.056		-2.170	.031	-.233	-.011					
	Mean Team Identity	-.002	.004	-.004	-.495	.621	-.009	.005	-.036	-.037	-.004	.951	1.051
	univavg	.005	.005	.008	.898	.370	-.006	.015	-.060	.066	.007	.778	1.285
	pepmean	-.007	.009	-.007	-.764	.446	-.024	.011	.023	-.056	-.006	.818	1.223
	Mean Perceived Quality	.213	.007	.276	29.341	.000	.199	.228	.725	.908	.227	.673	1.485
	bl_mean	.314	.008	.369	41.620	.000	.299	.329	.686	.951	.322	.761	1.314
	Mean Brand Associations	.501	.007	.627	72.126	.000	.487	.514	.856	.983	.557	.789	1.268

a. Dependent Variable: Mean Multidimensional Brand Equity

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4.814	.312		15.426	.000	4.198	5.429					
	Mean Team Identity	-.013	.044	-.022	-.289	.773	-.100	.074	-.021	-.021	-.021	.952	1.051
	univavg	.003	.058	.004	.053	.958	-.111	.117	-.001	.004	.004	.952	1.051

a. Dependent Variable: Mean Perceived Quality

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	5.791	.300		19.284	.000	5.199	6.384					
	Mean Team Identity	-.011	.042	-.019	-.249	.804	-.094	.073	-.042	-.018	-.018	.952	1.051
	univavg	-.079	.056	-.106	-1.423	.156	-.190	.031	-.110	-.104	-.103	.952	1.051

a. Dependent Variable: Mean Brand Associations

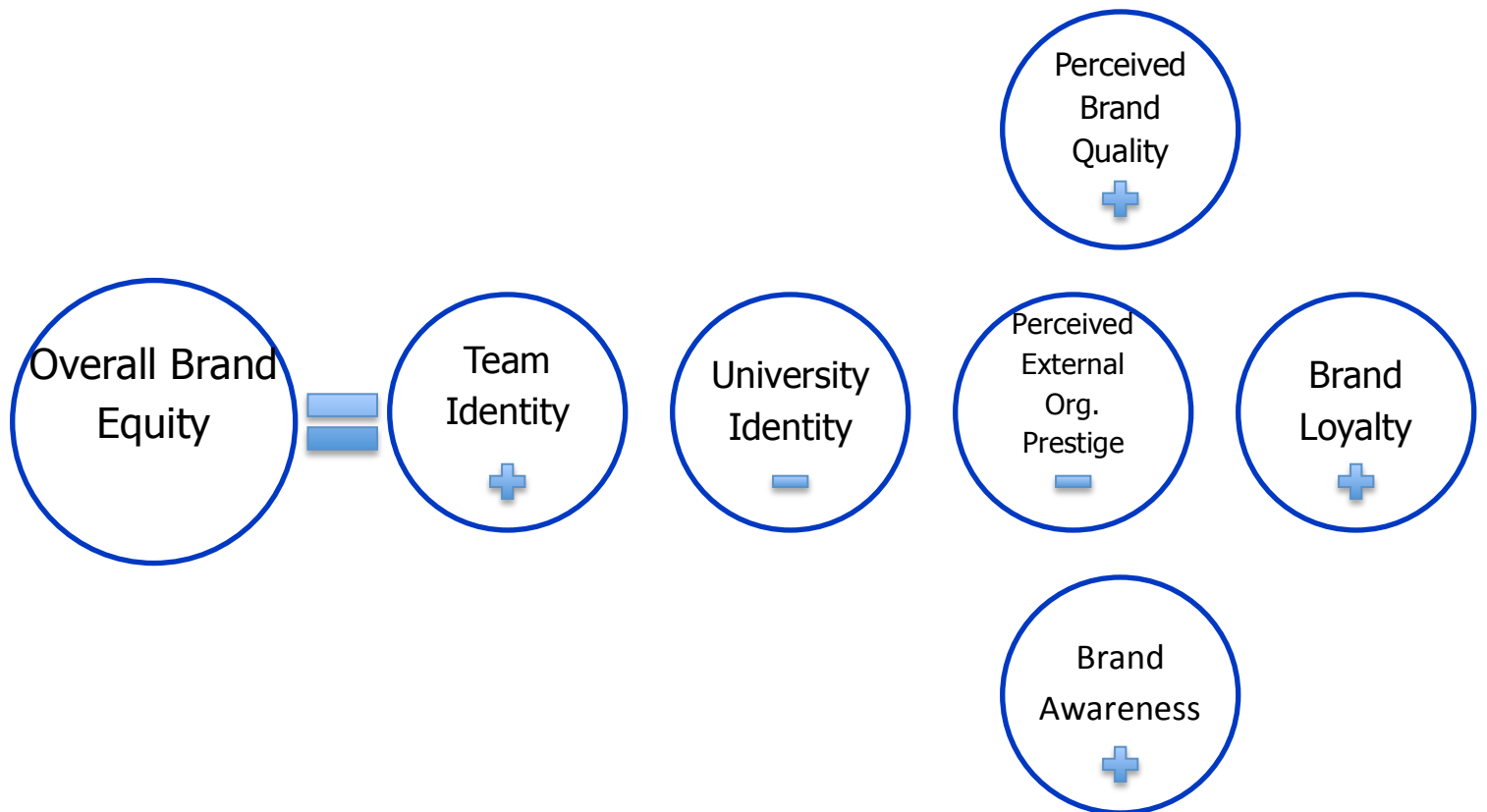
Key:

univavg: Mean Univesity Identity

pepmean: Mean Perceived External Organizational Prestige

blmean: Mean Brand Loyalty

Appendix V: Regression I relationships.



Appendix VI: Regression II Relationships

